

Journal
of the
Child Welfare League
of America
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child welfare

March 1956

Food Means More Than
Nutriture

Ensuring Adoption for
Hard-to-Place Children

Sharing Responsibility with
Applicants to Adopt

Training for Child Welfare

High School Classes in a
Maternity Program

The Legal Profession's
Responsibility in Adoption

CHILD WELFARE JOURNAL OF THE CHILD WELFARE LEAGUE OF AMERICA, Inc.

HENRIETTA L. GORDON, Editor

CHILD WELFARE is a forum for discussion in print of child welfare problems and the programs and skills needed to solve them. Endorsement does not necessarily go with the printing of opinions expressed over a signature.

CONTENTS

| | Page |
|---|------|
| Food Means More Than Nutriture | 1 |
| By Miriam E. Lowenberg, Ph.D. | |
| Ensuring Adoption for Hard-to-Place Children | 4 |
| By Joseph H. Reid | |
| Sharing Responsibility with Applicants to Adopt | 9 |
| By Helen L. Springer | |
| Training for Child Welfare | 12 |
| By Bernice Madison, Ph.D. | |
| High School Classes in a Maternity Program | 17 |
| By Ruth Newton Stevens | |
| Editorial Comments | |
| Bill No. S3297 to Improve the Child Welfare Provisions of the Social Security Act | 20 |
| The Legal Profession's Responsibility in Adoption | 21 |
| By Alex Elson | |
| News from the Field | 24 |
| Readers' Forum | 26 |
| Book Notes | 27 |
| Classified Ad Service | 28 |

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FOOD

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FOOD MEANS MORE THAN NUTRITURE

Miriam E. Lowenberg, Ph.D.

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The author's thesis is that:

Since it is impossible for a child or even an adult to divorce food from its many meanings, those who are concerned with the effect of feeding of individuals of any age, as well as those interested in the welfare of all individuals, need to give serious consideration to this point.

Food has greater meaning to all of us than mere nutriture of the body.

To serve a large steak to a guest gives prestige to the host and hostess and tells the guest that he is important. Milk toast means babyhood or illness to many people who like its warm comfort for a time, but who often shun it in later convalescence. Indian pudding brings forth expressions of delight from a born and bred New Englander. A young Turkish student, struggling with our language and finding our strange foods hardest of all to accept, carried a cucumber with her into the restaurant. At least with it she could have one food which gave her a feeling of being at home. Most of us remember many of the foods which we ate as children, with one feeling or another. In some ways we do not progress much beyond the eating patterns of the growing-up period.

In our society the normal pattern of eating for a child is to eat with a family with whom he feels comfortable and secure—parents who know what he likes and serve it to him, or at least recognize that this or that food is not his favorite.

Physiologically, food eases the pain of hunger. This is especially true for the young child to whom the pangs of hunger are really painful. The sequence, pain—food—pleasure, is an important one to remember because we have great advantage on our side as long as we can keep this meaning for food. As other meanings creep in and upset the original significance of food to a child, we get into trouble.

Appetite is usually defined as a desire for food. This is based on the remembrance of experiences with specific foods. Where many foods are remembered with pleasure and the

child feels good after hunger is eased, good appetites and pleasant meals are the rule. This is the setting desired by anyone who serves meals to individuals in families or in groups. In this situation one food may be refused at a particular meal and no lasting dislike be acquired.

Attractive Setting Important

Children, who for one reason or another, do not live with their natural families may bring to the table all of the insecurities which removal from a home entails. This has long been recognized by most dietitians and superintendents of children's institutions. No longer do we frequently see long rows of children eating at tables stretching endlessly away. Now small family groups replace this practice in most institutions in this country. We have also seen a real improvement in the kinds of table settings. As modern technology has produced colorful and durable plastic dishes and stainless steel flatware, institutions have been able to use more attractive eating utensils which also require a minimum of care. Perhaps some of you can recall the battered tin cups and tin plates of the old days in children's institutions, and little children looking lost and staring into space.

To appreciate the meaning attached to the setting in which one eats, we have to recall the comfort of a time when a friendly person served us attractive food in a strange, lonesome place. Budget makers, who really understand the true meaning of food and its service to children who live in institutions, believe that in the food service money must be used effectively.

Within recent years, a developing understanding of children has led us to see indi-

viduals, even in a crowd of children. The author proved to herself that this was always possible when she was in charge of feeding nearly one thousand children, aged eighteen months to six years, in two wartime, shipyard nursery schools.

This point of view leads to an understanding of why each child eats as he does. It leads us to understand the lonesome child who simply cannot eat, or the child who wants three servings of the familiar mashed potatoes, but who just can't eat the unfamiliar broccoli. It leads us to understand the child who has a small appetite and who is too full to finish dinner, but is hungry several hours later. It also leads us to understand the craving for the comfort of sweets of the child who feels rejected. It leads us to understand ebbs of appetites when children have little out-of-door play. In truth, understanding a child as an individual is absolutely necessary if one is to give food its intended meaning.

Perhaps the most difficult of decisions comes when attempting to determine the role of the adult in setting up happy and satisfying situations for children's eating. We have emphasized the importance of adults understanding children. Do we stop here? Do we adopt a policy of letting the child do as he will, or do adults have something worthwhile to pass on to children?

Setting Stage for Children's Eating

Most of us were convinced long ago that the child must do the eating; those who have considered this question seriously believe that forcing a child to eat defeats our entire purpose. What then can adults do besides understand the one child or a group of one hundred individual children?

One of the easiest ways to describe a satisfactory role of the adult is to look at the situation as "setting a stage." Adults can set the stage for children's eating. Of course, first comes the understanding of the child just as the most successful playwright writing a play for a certain actress remembers her special characteristics. All of the stage settings are built around her individual style of acting.

This may sound impossible when there are hundreds of children to feed. But let's remember that our fundamental philosophy determines our goals. Goals are what we work for, sometimes accomplishing them and sometimes not. But our decisions are always made in light of them. So, although today we fall short of accomplishing our goal, we are not dismayed. We work on and tomorrow we will succeed.

Let us be specific on at least one example of this setting a stage for children's eating. A two-year-old needs special thought given to his physical comfort. Designers of chairs have recognized this when they make chairs with squat and sturdy legs to fit chubby bodies—a chair which does not tip easily as a two-year-old with unsteady muscles tries to manage sitting on it. Even under great limitations, accommodations can be made so that children are physically comfortable while eating. The quiet and peaceful dining space in which two- or three-year-olds eat happily, usually has been carefully arranged by an adult. Things like this do not just happen.

Timing of Activities Necessary

Timing is also a control adults exercise for good or ill. The feeling of "now it's time to eat" and that a child can depend on eating at a certain time, gives him a feeling of security. Most young children feel frustrated without the limits set by adults. Again, however, our goal, if we are setting the stage for happy eating, is understanding how the child feels. Does the plan for mealtimes highlight the need for food, or are activities so arranged that children are in the midst of a fascinating project just as the bell for the meal rings?

In the wartime children's centers previously mentioned, the timing of quiet, relaxing play immediately preceding mealtimes was found to be one of the most important factors in the amounts of foods consumed by the children. Many other things are also important in setting this stage. The taboos set up around meals are a part of the control adults impose on children. Those who plan and serve meals are often unconscious of the meaning, which others see, of some practices

we accept without question. We say "No cake until you have eaten dinner." Which food do you think rates first in importance, the main part of the meal or the sweet dessert, to the one who says this? Why do we place such a high premium on dessert? Do we adults need the comfort of a sweet? Do we know that young children feel this way, or do we gradually but surely educate them to believe that of all foods sweet desserts are most desirable? If, instead, desserts are fruit or combinations of milk, eggs, and fruits, do our desserts not have a real function to furnish some of the needed food nutrients so that they are not just rewards for eating "horrid vegetables"? Why, then, do we not rather say to the child with an erratic appetite, "Sure, eat your custard and then you may eat your meat and vegetables if you want more food."

Food and Morality Confused

Again we often hear "If you are good, you may have a cookie." What does being good have to do with either the craving for a food, with appetite, with hunger, or with the emotional need for a food? Perhaps the child who has broken the rules needs the cookie more than any other child. Growth and robust health are physical phenomena and have really little to do with the concept of being good or bad. The association of food and morality, or the idea that food which is good for us does not taste good, are concepts which have defeated us more than they have helped us. Perhaps overindulgence in food may have moral implications if by so doing we deprive others of food they need. Otherwise there is little justification for associating either food or good nutrition with adherence to a moral code in any society. Yet we need to examine carefully our practices in feeding children to see that we do not allow the idea of being "bad as a sinner or good as a saint" to creep into our words and actions.

Again, do we really think that what we believe ultimately influences our actions? If we do, some real introspection as to our own philosophies will creep in. Try this on yourself as you observe children eating in dif-

ferent situations. Try to determine what those in charge really believe. Usually even a short conversation will allow the speaker to reveal his or her philosophies.

Do children have a right to dislike a food? Let's answer that one by asking another question. How many people do you see in one block in any city who look exactly alike? What would you think of a group of ten women who went into a store and all wanted the same hat? The point is obvious. In our society—in many, many areas of life—being an individual is highly prized and considered a sign of intelligent behavior. For instance, the expression of individuality is considered perfectly legitimate when it pertains to the books, the music, the flowers, the part of the country, the houses, or the clothes we like. Most of us allow even little children the privilege of liking one kind of flower, chair, toy or costume and not another. Children are also usually allowed to have a favorite cousin or uncle. What then is so terrible about having favorite foods or even pet dislikes? Is it the way dislikes of foods are handled? We suspect that it is. Where food becomes an effective weapon and dissimilarities are flaunted, mealtimes become occasions for exhibiting one's displeasures. On the other hand, where food dislikes are accepted, other methods of showing one's importance become of greater usefulness.

Summary

1. Food has great meaning besides nourishing his physical body.
2. Understanding the meaning of food to an individual child, at a particular time, helps the supervising adult to keep for the child the association of food and pleasure.
3. Adults may set the stage for successful eating only as they understand their role and play it conscientiously.

Mental Health Week

April 29–May 5 has been set aside as Mental Health Week. The National Association for Mental Health, Inc., 1790 Broadway, New York, has prepared kits to help participants in their observance of this week. The kits include: a leaflet, "The Mentally Ill Need Your Help," which tells about Mental Health Week; and guides and sample material which can be used to initiate and conduct a Mental Health Week observance in your community.

ENSURING ADOPTION FOR HARD-TO-PLACE CHILDREN

Joseph H. Reid

Executive Director
Child Welfare League of America

This article outlines the immediate responsibilities and some steps to be taken in finding permanent homes for the hard-to-place child.

THIRTY YEARS ago articles describing the difficulties of placing children for adoption were not uncommon. Oddly enough, however, they were not directed to the difficulties of placing older children, handicapped children, children of minority racial groups, the children now considered hard-to-place; rather, they were talking about the difficulties of finding homes for normal white infants. Today adoption agencies, faced with from five to ten times as many people applying for each available baby, look in amazement at such articles. For, in the brief span of thirty years, a revolution has occurred in regard to adoption. Community attitudes have changed abruptly. Adoption has become respectable. Any family unable to have its own children, or who for other reasons wants children, immediately thinks of adoption. Thus we have created in the United States not only a tremendous demand upon adoption agencies but a huge independent placement business and a disturbing growing black market.

To one group—children of dark skins—these statements do not apply, for there are still thousands of such infants for whom adoptive homes are lacking. Furthermore, while a tremendous majority of adoptive applicants think first of a young infant, this revolutionary trend has had impact on the opportunities for older and handicapped white children. Over the past ten years an ever-increasing number have found permanent homes.

Pressures to Obtain Homes

Today we are at a peak of interest in the problem of finding permanent homes for hard-to-place children. This interest has been mounting steadily over the past several years and there is every reason to expect that it will increase with each passing year. By using

* From a speech presented at APWA Northeastern Regional Conference, September 1955, New York City.

the word "interest" I mean, in part, pressure by certain public and private agencies which pioneered in proving that homes can be found for these children. There is pressure upon each of us to do something about it. No one working in the field of child welfare can be free from guilt as long as there remain children in foster care who could find permanent homes if the proper efforts were made. This is a good form of guilt and I believe it will not be difficult to get the general public to share it. When we as social workers make it clear who these children are, how many there are, and what can be done about them, I am certain that funds will be forthcoming from our legislatures and from our private philanthropic groups to provide the necessary services. That sounds like a Pollyannaish statement and it may sound even worse to those of you who have been besieging your county commissioners or your state legislatures for funds to provide more adequate adoption services. What we have to do to make such requests effective is to know clearly what we are talking about, project realistically what is needed to do the job, and then—holler our heads off! I am sure there will be a response, for the appeal of homeless children is one of the strongest that can possibly be made to a conscientious public.

Some people have already brought this subject to the attention of the public. Some months ago, it was estimated that there were some 5,000 children in foster care in the State of New York who could be placed for adoption if adoption services were available. The superb study of the California Citizens' Committee for Adoption revealed that between 12 and 18 per cent of all children in foster care in Los Angeles could be placed for adoption were resources available.

In the past, too many people have not talked about this need for fear that it would play into the hands of unthinking critics of

child welfare have alleged foster care workers eat protection are, of course. The only way No one children in adoption, problem, which has sands of could ben

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child welfare work. From time to time writers have alleged that most of the children in foster care are kept there by grasping social workers eager to keep up numbers for the protection of their own jobs. Such allegations are, of course, absolutely without foundation. The only way to fight untruth is by truth.

No one really knows today how many children in foster care could be placed for adoption, nor all the ramifications of the problem, but we are certain from studies which have been done that there are thousands of children in the United States who could benefit from adoption planning.

Progress in Extending Program

Both public and private agencies have made notable steps toward overcoming this problem. In a recent Child Welfare League of America study of adoption practices of 167 participating agencies in the United States, it was found that 32 already had extensive programs for the placement of hard-to-place children. One hundred five additional agencies said they would be willing to start such a program were funds and staff sufficient. Only 30 said they considered it impractical to attempt the placement of older and handicapped children.

In the past several years the State Department of Rhode Island has sponsored a series of articles in a national magazine and made an active and successful effort to recruit homes. The Los Angeles County Bureau of Adoptions of the Bureau of Public Assistance has made a sustained and successful effort in communicating the need for homes for Negro and Mexican children, in particular, by means of street car posters, announcements on radio, newspaper stories, television, special letters, brochures. In the past year agencies in New York City, Chicago and San Francisco have created special short-time cooperative programs financed by foundations, for recruiting adoptive homes for children of minority groups.

In North Carolina a private agency, financed through foundation funds and working cooperatively with a group of institutions, has been studying the situations of

children in long-term institutional care, and planning adoption for those who could be so placed. Their program has resulted in the placement of a considerable group of older children, who, without this special effort, would undoubtedly have remained in institutional care indefinitely.¹

Steps in Establishing Cooperation

The so-called State Adoption Index pioneered in Ohio has resulted in the placement of many hard-to-place children. The technique is very simple. In a central registry all public and private agencies in the state are permitted to register children for whom they cannot find adoptive applicants, as well as adoptive applicants whose peculiar needs or background make it difficult to find a child for them. The registry puts the agency having the child in touch with the agency having the adoptive parents. Quite a few states have now begun to establish such an index. The Child Welfare League of America in its new adoption project will attempt to help all states establish such indexes, using uniform methods so that eventually a national index or regional ones may be set up as the need arises. This effort can be of maximal effectiveness only if the private and public agencies work together.

A large state-wide private agency in Chicago has made a sustained effort to obtain homes for Negro children. In particular it has worked closely with the Negro community in attempting to overcome the psychological blocks that often exist in the use of social agencies by Negroes. It has worked with several Negro national magazines and has had several articles interpreting the need for homes in those magazines. Practically all agencies which have tried such efforts report that they have discovered an amazing lack of knowledge concerning the problems of these children. Communication is not the total answer but it is certainly one of the basic necessities in making the average person in the general public aware of the extent of this problem.

¹ *Adoption for School-age Children in Institutions*, by Neville B. Weeks, published by CWLA, October 1953, 16 pp.

Before we can go into widespread campaigns of public interpretation we must have the resources to deliver. At this stage we are prevented from going into a nationwide campaign by the realization that in most communities the public and private agencies are not prepared to handle the demand that would result from an aroused public interest in the adoption of hard-to-place children. They do not have the resources of staff and funds to do so. The essential fact which we must face in this problem is that two things must go together: potential adoptive homes and adoption agencies.

Some Over-all Considerations

Before we become too enthusiastic about the placement of the hard-to-place child, certain precautions are necessary. The concept adopted by the League at its National Adoption Conference in 1951, that any child is adoptable who needs a family and can develop in a family setting and for whom a family can be found that can accept him as he is, is a good premise. However, the implications are rather deep. This does not mean that any child who is legally available for adoption should be placed for adoption. There are many children who have been so damaged by their experiences in foster care and, in particular, by many placements, that from a psychiatric standpoint severe caution must be exercised before they are placed for adoption. Much more work needs to be done in developing a better diagnostic understanding of children whose emotional problems are so severe that it is unfair to the child and to the adoptive family to attempt to place him without treatment. The child who has had a long period of institutional care in infancy is a good example. Some psychiatrists believe that many children's ability to love and be loved has been so severely damaged that they are very poor risks for adoption. While we must not take the negative viewpoint that this will always be the case, we do have to take a sufficiently cautious viewpoint so as not to rush blindly into placing every older child who is legally available for adoption.

The second point of caution is that factors

which have nothing to do with the practices of adoption agencies must be considered. This is particularly true in the placement of Negro children or children from other minority groups. Three important considerations are:

1. The economic status among Negroes and other minority racial groups is much poorer than among the white population. This means that in many more families both the husband and wife work.
2. Housing is far more limited; there is often an absence of play space; homes may be in very poor neighborhoods, involving other conditions frowned upon by adoption agencies.
3. The incidence of unmarried parenthood is very much higher among Negroes than whites. There are, therefore, proportionately many more children for whom homes must be found.

Division of Responsibilities

Other conditions for which agencies are in part responsible are:

1. There is an almost total lack of facilities for the placement of Negro children.
2. A lack of understanding exists on the part of Negro communities of the nature and importance of the problem.
3. There are cultural blocks within the Negro group growing out of a fear of social agencies, particularly public agencies—fear of the prejudice of predominantly "white" social agencies towards Negroes.
4. Adoption agencies fail to know and utilize leadership potentials in the Negro community.
5. Agencies unrealistically insist on standards which demand a home for the Negro child which is not attainable by the average family in the Negro community. This applies, as well, to Indian children and Mexican children. For example, in one state practically all Indian children are cared for in institutions because there are few, if any, Indian families with sufficient resources to have housing, sanitation, income, educational and other facilities to meet the standards of the State Department. Here there is a very real question as to whether the failure to accept available homes represents the fear of social workers lest they support a double standard. Does this attitude not rob some neglected or dependent children of minority groups of a chance to become members of a family and to develop into normal integrated personalities? Certainly we must tackle the problem of the lower economic and social status of minority groups by improving conditions of housing, employment and social opportunities on the broad base. But, in the meantime, are we being immoral if we suggest that a double standard based upon an evaluation of each individual family's health and potential is

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dictated by the present simple facts of life? What is worse for a child—to be deprived of a normal family life and receive an inside toilet and a room for himself—or to live with a normal family whose standards of living are temporarily, at least, below those of the community? Agencies should place primary emphasis upon the emotional health of a family and face realistically the necessity to lower standards concerned with physical surroundings.

6. Some communities apply standards inappropriately. As a result, in many instances potential adoptive parents do not apply because they believe that social agencies make such unrealistic demands regarding income, housing and evidence of family stability, that the average family could not possibly meet them.

What of the division of responsibility between public and private agencies? In some states the attitudes of public and private agencies toward each other have been a very real barrier in the placement of children for adoption. Many public agencies are deeply resentful because they believe that private agencies try to place only the desired babies and leave the job of the hard-to-place children to them. Many private agencies have taken a dim view of the work of public agencies in the adoption field because they believe this work is assigned to completely inexperienced and untrained people who botch the job. There is an element of truth in both allegations but if we don't overcome these hostilities, children will continue to suffer. Statistically, the majority of adoptions in the United States are done through private agencies. This is a relatively new field for public agencies, but in the past five years there has been a tremendous acceleration of the development of public adoption agencies.

No generalization can be suggested as to the division of responsibility between public and private agency. Some community research groups, in doing surveys, have outlined such superficial divisions, usually placing all the adoption work they can upon the public agency and suggesting that the private agencies concentrate upon the hard-to-place children. While in some communities there may be logic for this, in others it is an unsound recommendation. The fact is that even in combining all private and public resources we still have but a fraction of what we need.

The main consideration has to be what services exist and what division of responsibility will promote the maximum service.

All child welfare agencies, public and private, have a responsibility to do something in this field as long as present day conditions exist. If, because of attitudes as are found in one or two of our midwestern states, it is unlikely that the legislature will appropriate adequate funds for an adoption program or support professional standards, then it is unwise to assume that the public agency will do the adoption job. In another community it may well be that Chest failures, or a limited view of responsibility allow the private agency to offer but a token service. In that case the public agency must get in and do a job. Of greatest importance is that adoption efforts of public and private agencies be coordinated.

Suggested Basic Guides

Coordination requires the maximum utilization of resources of both public and private agencies. It requires agreement on standards and methods. If one particular adoption agency has extremely rigid policies it hurts all adoption agencies in a given community. The few social agencies whose methods of fund raising are suspect, whose placement of children approximates that of a gray market, are a danger to every public and private agency in the country. It is our job to see that all of them are closed. When it comes to the placement of hard-to-place children there is no argument as to whether this is a job for agencies or independent placement. The fact is that only social agencies will tackle this problem. There is no profit in it for the independent practitioner or black marketeer. This is one of the strongest arguments for the development of adoption agencies as the exclusive social institution for the placement of children.

There are many indications that we are at the brink of a very real effort to solve the problem of the hard-to-place children. To assure that we do not slip backward, we all have the following responsibilities:

1. We must identify the problem clearly; examine case loads; determine accurately the number of

children who, with resources, could be placed for adoption.

2. We need to examine our agency practices and policies to make certain that they are not restrictive in placement of children. For example, a common agency policy that is, in my view, restrictive is one that forbids the use of a foster home as an adoptive home when the child has originally been placed for foster care.
3. Once having ascertained the extent of the problem, we have to make it known forcibly to financing groups that staff and funds must be had to do the job.
4. We must study the problem with the view of stimulating interest in the general public.²
5. We must make certain that, in our first flush of enthusiasm, we do not go out on a big campaign only to let it fall flat for lack of sustained effort and interest. The placement of older children and of children of minority groups is difficult. The placement of a ten-year-old child is probably from two to three times as expensive as that of an infant. The risks of placement are much greater. The necessity for careful supervision is much greater and the per capita cost of placement much higher.

In Conclusion

We have just completed a nation-wide study of adoption practices in agencies, the results of which will shortly be available, and have begun a three-year foundation-financed project to study foster care and adoption in a representative sample of states. This new study has as its purpose a scientific study of the social, psychological and legal status of children in foster care, as to their suitability for adoption. We hope to provide the facts for a widespread campaign to produce homes for adoptable children. We will study what can be done to make those children left behind in foster care adoptable. Examination of adoption laws and legal obstacles to some children's adoption will be part of the project. We hope through this study to discover obstacles to the permanent placement of children; to determine with some accuracy which children who seem to be adoptable are, for psychological or other reasons, unadoptable. We hope to be able to project what is needed in terms of resources to do this job. We plan to work closely with other groups and par-

² The *Saturday Evening Post's* article, "Babies for the Brave," by Alice Lake, in July 31, 1954 issue, is one example of how interest can be stimulated.

ticularly to use Citizen Advisory Committees so that this project is not simply a research project but an action-research project with the action being accomplished as the research goes on. We believe that our project will be of major help in this campaign. All of us should watch closely such efforts as New York City's "Adopt a Child" Campaign and San Francisco's effort in the same area. These agencies have already proved wrong many of our beliefs concerning the unsuitability of adoptive homes for minority groups.

We must plan for financing these projects on a permanent basis. Foundations have been giving generously in this area but they cannot be expected to do so indefinitely. This job must be financed as a regular part of a community's child welfare program.

We must be determined and outspoken about the nature of the problem and what must be done to overcome it. For it is only as we have the knowledge and courage to talk about the problem that the general public will have the interest and courage to provide the money needed to do something about it.

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SHARING RESPONSIBILITY WITH APPLICANTS TO ADOPT

Helen L. Springer

Director of Casework

DePelchin Faith Home and Children's

Bureau

Houston, Texas

Increasingly in the past three years, agencies have been using the group meeting as the first step in telling prospective adoptive couples about the agency's way of selecting new parents, and its problems in satisfying the many who want a child. The writer of this article reports an interesting variation of the group meeting.

PROBABLY THE greatest strain and anxiety for the agency staff doing adoption work comes from the hostility of rejected applicants, whether this is expressed directly to the worker or through complaints to influential persons in the community. In spite of interpretation and casework with the applicants, many of them continue to think of the agency as prejudiced, authoritative and punitive.

Like many other agencies, ours had found that group meetings had decreased the applicants' fear of rejection for personal reasons and their feeling of being alone in their problem.

These meetings, attended by five or six couples, were led by the intake adoption worker. They began with a brief explanation of the agency's entire program followed by a discussion of adoption, the procedures used in studying applicants, placement and supervision with reasons for them. The applicants were encouraged to express their feelings about our methods and there was always some discussion, but lack of time, and perhaps some anxiety on the part of the worker that not all phases would be covered or that one person would monopolize, prohibited free discussion. Also, the formality of the presentation may have been a deterrent.

In the fall of 1954 an experimental meeting with the group was attempted following the "buzz session" idea.¹ The entire group of new applicants for a month (approximately 30 couples) were invited to meet with three staff members. In a fifteen-minute talk, the

agency's full program was described. The question was posed, "What would you do if you had 50 children to place for adoption and 1000 couples asking for them?" They were told that we would divide into three groups to discuss this question. Each group was led by a staff member.

In the smaller group, the worker asked for a volunteer to take minutes. In each instance one of the most capable people offered to keep notes. Although the conclusions drawn in each group were approximately the same, they were reached by somewhat different reasoning. The decisions which were read by the secretaries to the small groups could have been used as a statement of our policies and procedures, stated in lay language. Following the reading of these minutes, the worker gave a brief explanation of the means used by the agency for the screening recommended by the applicants, and they were encouraged to express their ideas or questions about these methods. They were then told that if they wished to apply, they might telephone for an appointment for an interview with the intake worker.

The applicants left the meeting noticeably happier than those attending previous meetings where there had been less participation, and the workers, themselves, were less tense, having been reinforced by the opinions of their groups. All three workers were enthusiastic about the results of the experiment and meetings of this type have continued to be used as our first direct contact with applicants.

The first reaction of the groups to the question posed is strikingly similar, throughout the months. There is always a pause of several seconds, followed by someone saying,

¹ This new plan evolved as the result of discussion of the dynamics of these problems at staff conference, under the leadership of our psychiatric consultant, Dr. David Mendell.

"That's the \$64 question" or a similar remark. In approximately nine times out of ten, a group member will express the idea that the children's welfare must be considered first and the best homes selected from among the applicants. If this thought does not come out clearly, the agency worker can easily interject it by asking where the group members believe the agency's responsibility lies. There has always been complete agreement on the justice of such planning. If at any time during the meeting the discussion veers away from the agency's viewpoint that the interest of the child is paramount, the worker can bring the group back by a reference to the decision made by them to the child as the focus of concern.

Applicants Discuss Their Problems

In one meeting the following discussion dealt with the question of the adoptive parents' ages.

Mr. A: "My wife is 42 and I am 48. We would like to have a baby. We believe we are more settled, more thoughtful, and better able financially to care for a child than we were 15 years ago, but we understand that agencies won't consider us."

Mrs. B: "I don't believe you can determine how thoughtful and mature a couple is by their age. Some people never become mature and settled and others are thoughtful and mature in their twenties."

Nods of agreement from others.

Mr. C: "My parents were about 40 when I was born. When I was in my teens, they were not interested in football games or our discussion about dances and our other interests as were my friends' parents who were younger."

Mrs. D: "I believe older parents could give just as good care to a baby, but it seems to me the agency would need to think about the future and whether parents who are so far away from their own adolescence can have as much understanding of that difficult stage, as well as consider how active the parents can be at that stage of life."

Mr. A: "You may be right, we hadn't thought of all that."

In one discussion when it seemed the consensus that parents should be members of the same church, the following discussion took place.

Mr. E: "My mother is a Baptist, but my wife is an Episcopalian. As long as my mother lives, I will not leave the Baptist church although I attend my wife's church."

Mrs. F: "In our home our parents were in different churches. It was always confusing to us children. We never quite felt sure we were worshiping in the best way. I think this was always a kind of wall in our family relations."

Mr. G: "Bishop Sheen says, 'The family who pray together, stay together.'"

Mr. E. told us later in an interview that following the group meeting he made a visit to his mother and discussed with her his real desire to join the church of which his wife was a member. He was surprised that his mother was able to accept his change from her teachings and to encourage him to follow his own convictions. That the support of the group had helped him to emancipate himself in the one area in which he was still depending upon his mother, came out clearly in this interview.

One couple whose appearance was almost shabby, seemed extremely sensitive when the subject of finances was brought up.

Mrs. H: "I don't think money is so important, it's whether you love the child that matters."

Mrs. I: "I believe that no matter how much parents love a child, if they can't provide adequately they are not fair to a child."

Mr. H: (belligerently) "We don't have much money, but I know I could support a child, we'd manage some way."

The Worker: "Isn't the way people handle their money more important than the amount of money they have?"

This led into discussion of the need to plan thoughtfully and seemed to help the H's save face. When Mr. and Mrs. H. came for their first interview, they were ready to discuss their budget and delayed completing their application until they could increase their savings.

Compatibility is usually mentioned as a part of the criteria and surprisingly often someone will speak of the agency's need to know the family backgrounds of the applicants. This has sometimes been questioned by others in the group.

Mr. J: "What does that have to do with suitability of parents?"

Mrs. K: "I think it has much to do with the kind of standards you have in your home."

Mr. L: "Besides, don't children need happy parents? Can adults be happy if they suffered too much in their childhood?"

Such statements usually lead to remarks about the influence on adults of the first seven years of life, the effects of divorce on children, and the need for adopted children to be loved by relatives as well as parents.

The group will, as a rule, suggest that couples who have not made sufficient effort to determine their own sterility should be eliminated as not having sufficient desire for a child.

Strange as it may seem, the emotional components of good parenthood are those discussed first and often the more concrete needs such as financial stability, suitable housing and good health are forgotten until the question is brought up by the worker.

At the close of our group meeting, all applicants are offered forms for the usual factual information, for their financial situation, an average monthly budget and fertility studies. These forms are to be sent to the worker before the appointment is made for the first interview. This enables the worker to be prepared to make suggestions as to further efforts the couple might want to make in regard to their fertility problem or their financial planning, if such is needed.

Attitudes of Applicants Modified

There have been many evidences of better results in the attitudes and feelings of applicants. Knowing that all applicants, regardless of financial, social or educational standing are invited to the group, each sees that all are being told about the problem of supply and demand, that these are the actual facts and not said to them because the worker does not like them as individuals or considers them inadequate. They can more easily understand that large numbers of people are desirous of a child. Expression of ideas by other applicants in regard to the many phases of the applicants' life which the agency needs to explore helps to break down resistance to "red tape."

When these couples come for their first interview, they are more ready to discuss themselves and their situations freely and less prone to insist on definite answers as to whether the agency will use their home. They also show more willingness to work on their own problems in relation to their readiness for a child. We notice, too, that there is less rigidity in their specifications for a child.

Letters or telephone calls from applicants awaiting study and those being studied seldom beg the agency to give them a child but merely express their continued interest in adoption. In the past few months practically no pressure from friends of these couples has come to the agency, and even rejected applicants show less anxiety and less need for concrete reasons for the rejection.

Additional value to the agency comes from adoption workers' own feelings. Sharing the responsibility for the adoption program with those other people most concerned and feeling their agreement with the agency in its plans, has relieved the workers of the burden of uncertainty which is inherent in this work. When hostility toward the agency arises in the group meeting, the members are usually able to handle it better and with less hurt to anyone than can be done by even the most able social worker. Relief from pressures brought by dissatisfied applicants frees the workers for doing their work with less frustration and tension. The saving in time is also evident, especially when it is noticed that of their own accord many applicants after the group meeting have eliminated themselves, realizing that for one reason or another they could not expect the agency to consider their application favorably. Some have telephoned to explain that they are not sending in their applications because they would consider themselves selfish if they did not make more effort to have a child of their own. Others have called or written to explain why they realize others should be given preference. Recently, the agency has received more applications for older and for handicapped children, as the result of the explanation given at the close of the meeting that the agency often needs exceptional prospective parents for children in those categories.

Plans are now being made for group meetings of adoptive parents who have a child placed by our agency and who are applying for a second child. The discussion in these groups will center around first, these parents' experiences with the agency, and second, the question of when an adopted child is ready for a sibling. It is our belief that the agency's methods can be improved and that these applicants, too, as well as their children, will profit from such meetings.

TRAINING FOR CHILD WELFARE*

Bernice Madison, Ph.D.

Associate Professor of Social Work
San Francisco State College, California

The author shares with the reader some of her thoughts and experiences with undergraduate social work training of child welfare personnel.

AT A conference on adoption, training for child welfare ought to be discussed for at least two reasons:

1. Because well-trained personnel is one of the keys to making agency adoption a vital service for children and for earning the confidence of the community which, in turn, assures positive and growing support; and
2. Because a sound adoption program operates most effectively if it is one of a network of child welfare services, all a part of the movement to give children a good life.

There is no doubt in my mind that each of you not only has already been exposed to views regarding training for child welfare, but has himself contributed to shaping them. We have all heard and given arguments, to us convincing, for the need of fully-trained professional workers in the child welfare field; that is, workers with degrees from accredited graduate schools of social work. We have all been concerned, sporadically or consistently, with the urgency and the essential quality of this need. We have all helped, directly or through describing and analyzing practice, to create the content of graduate curricula and the methods for achieving their goals. Perhaps we have even fought for educational leaves and spent endless effort to find the right people to take advantage of them.

However, I am quite sure that you have not been exposed to training possibilities at the undergraduate level too often; and yet they must be of genuine interest to you because of their scope and significance. Obviously, with the sky-rocketing college enrollments all over the country, there is more opportunity to teach this future "general public" about the important issues in social welfare, including those more specific to children. If these young people understand what

is involved, they are more likely to support sound and humane programs. There is more opportunity, too, to recruit into our profession. But these are not the contributions I wish to emphasize since, strictly speaking, they do not involve training for the child welfare field.

Some of you may feel that my approach is out of place because employment in child welfare automatically means the possession of graduate training in social work. Is such an assumption justified?

Status of Training in Profession

While it is true that more of our child welfare workers have graduate training in social work than workers in other programs, nevertheless the situation leaves much to be desired: in 1950, 40 per cent of the child welfare workers in non-institutional public child welfare programs were without such training. This lack was especially pronounced among caseworkers; half of them were without graduate training in social work. In addition, one out of every five public assistance workers—who have appreciably less professional training than do child welfare workers—were employed in child welfare programs. These caseworkers were providing services to four-fifths of the 250,000 children who were being served by public welfare agencies in 1950. And what about the one and one-half million children receiving assistance and service through the A.D.C. program? About 75 per cent of their workers were without graduate social work training.

To what extent are workers in voluntary child welfare agencies professionally equipped with education? In 1950, nearly a quarter of them were without graduate social work training.

What about the adoption field itself, the field which not only requires but also taxes

* Presented at CWLA National Conference on Adoption, January 1955, Chicago, Ill.

our best professional skills and which impinges upon the sensitivities of the general public more poignantly perhaps than any other segment of social work practice. Two hundred and fifty-nine adoption agencies, public and private, returned filled-in questionnaires to the Child Welfare League of America in connection with its current adoption project. These agencies employed 1,161 caseworkers: 421 or nearly 37 per cent of them were either high school or college graduates only.

Now I am certain that you are all restraining a terrific impulse to enter the arena in defense of these children's workers with the traditional weapon of experience and supervision. Clearly, good, long experience and high-grade supervision are fine and many of our workers probably possess one or the other or both. But we cannot make the blanket assumption that all of them do. For example, while more than 90 per cent of the supervisors in public child welfare work and in the adoption agencies mentioned earlier had graduate social work education, this was true of less than half of the public assistance supervisors whose duties included supervision of A.D.C. cases. Data on experience would show similar differences. The impression gained is that in some instances the blind are being led by those with poor vision. At the very least, substandard qualifications on the part of any member of the staff are a drain on the resources at the disposal of the agency, to say nothing of the fact that they are likely to bring about poor service to some clients at some time in some way. And I cannot refrain from pointing out that no profession has ever been able to make headway toward achieving full and undisputed professional status and toward public acceptance of itself as such without steadily raising and rigidly adhering to agreed-upon educational qualifications for its practitioners.

Even these scattered statistics indicate that a large number of the social workers serving children are without graduate training in social work. At the same time, a further analysis would show that a preponderant majority of these same workers either

completed college or have a substantial amount of college education. It is in this context that the potential contribution of the undergraduate curriculum to training of child welfare personnel begins to emerge.

Purpose of Undergraduate Training

But before I enlarge on this contribution, it is necessary to make clear that a vocational approach to the undergraduate social work curriculum is justified only if it clarifies, rather than obscures, the broader framework within which this curriculum ought to be offered. We are in agreement today that undergraduate education is preparation for professional education, on the one hand, and for positions in social welfare for which professionally qualified workers are not available, or not demanded, on the other. The crux of the problem therefore is: what is to be included in a single program of training—an undergraduate social work major—and how is this material to be welded together into a manageable whole that is neither too narrowly technical nor too loosely general to

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be of value to the student in graduate training or in social work jobs that are open to him upon graduation? In other words, our short-term goals must not be allowed to overshadow the long-range objectives. And in my view, the two are not mutually exclusive, but are, on the contrary, integral parts of an educational process that achieves both, if this process is correctly conceived.

Content of Undergraduate Course

With this framework clearly understood, we may proceed to look at the undergraduate major in social work education in relation to training of child welfare personnel. What contribution that is pertinent ought to be made by disciplines other than social work? Those of biology, physiology and psychology? They ought to equip the student with a solidly-grounded understanding of normal human growth and development and of individual differences. In addition, the student should be helped to develop a sound grasp of the manifestations of marked deviations from the normal; some ability to interpret correctly the inner motivation shaping behavior within the diversity of major relationships experienced by people in our society; and an appreciation of the need and some ability to understand why he himself acts and feels as he does toward different people in various situations.

If the above can be said to encompass the internal motivating factors that shape human behavior, the other side of the coin, so to speak, is the environment within which this shaping process occurs. This environment is made up of the many and varied external factors that interact with inner motivations to produce specific behavior, such factors as economic, cultural, political and social. Knowledge about environment would come chiefly from anthropology, economics, political science, history, sociology and geography. Educational outcomes to be gained from this area would include an understanding of the main streams of thought and events that have contributed to modern civilization, the ways in which the major strands in the social fabric influence the

behavior of individuals and groups, and how individuals and groups, in turn, shape the social milieu. In addition, the student ought to be able to develop a considerable amount of appreciation for those elements in the environment that create special stresses and strains for children and adults; of the emotions that may accompany loss of parents, illness, unequal competition, etc.; and of the behavior which may result from such emotions.

Since understanding of people and self-understanding are to be applied to analysis of human problems, it is important for the student to know how to study a problem in the first place, both in reference to the separate elements that produce it, and especially in terms of the relationships that exist among these elements. In order to gain this knowledge, the student must learn about scientific method—with all that it implies of self-searching and self-understanding—and how to use and produce quantitatively expressed data. Through an appropriate research project, the student can be helped to realize that objectivity must be maintained in order to insure uniform and equitable treatment of data secured from people, but that at the same time each person must be considered as an individual in his own right who offers information in his own way in order to fulfill his particular purposes.

What contribution that would be important for child welfare workers ought to be made by social work? It has the task of synthesizing the knowledge from other disciplines into a body of principles and concepts that can be meaningfully brought to bear on the problems of children beset with difficulties within the realities of the social welfare agencies created to serve them.

The first method of bringing about such synthesis is to develop in students a philosophy and a code of ethics that are commonly accepted as fundamental for all truly professional social work practice. The student should be helped to feel that he is a member of a profession and to develop a professional self-discipline. He should be stimulated and encouraged to concern himself with the

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purposes, ethics and obligations of the profession; to accept appropriate responsibility to work for sound social policy and improved standards of social service; and to understand and accept the relationship of the social worker to the members of other professions involved in the provision of the social services.

History of Child Welfare Movement

Knowledge more specific to child welfare, yet free from preoccupation with narrow skills and techniques, would include a broad picture of the position of children in modern society, of their rights and obligations. By this I do not mean a mere listing of them or a detailed discussion of laws in which they are embedded. Lists and details are soon forgotten, and without a strong intellectual anchor the student is left to flounder in the pressures, conflicting values, and administrative and emotional complexities that often surround the offering of social services to children. A better way to teach in this area is to show the student how the current provisions came to be what they are, what kinds of forces shaped them and to what purposes. Thus, historical facts about the child welfare movement in this country as well as in various other parts of the world are not presented per se, but in order to explain the reasons that brought about current provisions and to suggest better ways of achieving the same or higher goals. This approach opens up a vista of evolutionary development in the field within a framework of critical analysis. The student begins to see how well or how badly existing provisions meet the needs of children—all children, not only those who come to social welfare agencies.

What are these needs? Or, in more dramatic and appealing words, the instructor may ask: what are the rights of children that we all agree on and wish to implement as fully as possible? There is, first, the right to life itself. It is a fascinating story that unfolds for the students when they learn about the tremendous strides made in recent decades in lowering infant, child and maternal

mortality and of the victory over communicable diseases. And yet they are not left complacent: they learn too that in our own country even today a baby's chances for survival are unequal because of race or the community in which he happens to be born or the economic status of his parents. They usually become quite upset, too, when confronted with the high mortality rates of infants and children in our territories and possessions and in other countries of the world less fortunate than ours. They begin to appreciate the sensitivity of the mortality rate as an index of the social well-being of a community.

Social Work's Concern for Children

What about the right of children to economic and social security? How many of our country's families have children and what is the economic position of these families? When students learn that 50 per cent of our children are raised in one-sixth of our families and that these families are at the low end of our economic scale, the words "deprived" and "under-privileged" begin to shed much of their moralistic overlay and to emerge in their true social connotations. Students become aware that such programs as public education, public recreation, O.A.S.I., A.D.C., Crippled Children's Services, etc., are not a bureaucratic drain on the eternal taxpayer's pocketbook, but are tangible implementations of a child's right to economic and social security. Why haven't we done more toward such implementation? they want to know. What about children's allowances and health insurance? The instructor must show them what such programs have or have not done for children in other countries. It is usually at this point also that students begin to see the significance of the increasing proportion of mothers in the labor force, and of the whole struggle against child labor. This struggle is indeed a dramatic one that reflects many aspects of our culture and social life. At the end of its recital and analysis, it is possible to place the present situation into its proper perspective: children working in agriculture, in street trades and amusement places and in

home industries are seen as lacking the possibilities for normal development that other children who do not work have.

And what about the right of children to emotional security? In the light of the knowledge our students bring from their study of personality development, what would we like to get for children from parents, schools, the community? Why don't we always get it?

As for the right of equality of opportunity, what does it imply for children who are physically or mentally handicapped, children in minority groups, illegitimate children, and those who are victims of wars and revolutions? For example, non-segregation in the public schools has always been a logical implication of equality of opportunity. But it took us until 1953 to create the social conditions that translated this implication into reality—yet to be fully accepted. What lack of implementation may have meant to hundreds of thousands of our children can be glimpsed from Chief Justice Earl Warren's simple, great words:

"To separate them from others of similar age and qualifications solely because of their race, generates a feeling of inferiority as to their status in the community that may affect their hearts and minds in a way unlikely ever to be undone."

It is within the understandings provided by this kind of knowledge that the platform and recommendations of the United Nations and of the Midcentury White House Conference on Children and Youth become intelligible and meaningful to students.

Importance of Community Resources

And at this point the instructor may use still another method for achieving the synthesis mentioned earlier: he may focus on the network of community resources that are available or that should be available for serving children adequately. What kind of agencies do we now have on the international, national, state and local levels, both in the public and private sectors? How did they come into being? What are their functions and how do they go about accomplishing their objectives? By now I am no longer surprised at the large numbers of students who never heard of UNICEF, or the U. S.

Children's Bureau, or the Child Welfare League of America, or the child welfare division of the State Department of Public Welfare in their own state; and at how glad they are to hear that all these agencies exist and that they can use them and develop them! Again, from the point of view of educational outcomes, it is not enough to list these agencies, or to describe them, or even to visit them. Underpinning this type of learning, there must be conveyed to the student the importance of the very idea of organizing the community to meet children's needs; the ways that have been found successful for accomplishing such organization; the gaps and failures; the principles of group dynamics involved; the responsibility of the professional person for critical evaluation, making inadequacies known to others, suggesting action, and participating in common efforts to improve conditions.

During his undergraduate training the student should also learn about the kinds of services actually available to children in our country. This may be done in various ways, of course. One way I have found effective is to begin with children in their own homes and those who receive social services as part of other programs for children, and go on to children who need various kinds of protective services or foster care in institutions or in family homes. This is not intended as a detailed or technical presentation. The purpose is to crystallize for the student the fundamentals of child welfare philosophy which have already been introduced at appropriate points; to clarify further for him the types of problems that confront children in our society around which services have been built up; perhaps highlight some of the main difficulties we encounter in dealing with these problems; and emphasize in no uncertain terms the need for full professional training on the part of those who attempt to work on such problems.

In Conclusion

As for the practical contribution of social work to the undergraduate curriculum—that is, the transformation of synthesized knowledge into certain kinds of skills—this is a

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most controversial topic. The main skill would be the ability to use himself professionally in relation to others. The undergraduate curriculum can and should equip the student with the rudiments in the professional use of self and with only a partial ability to enter into relationship. This would be in line not only with preparing him better for graduate school and for jobs that are open to him upon graduation from college, but would also serve as a selective device so that only students who can meet all the major demands of the profession will enter it, not merely those demands that lie in the theoretical area.

I am sure that many of you may feel that the contribution of the undergraduate curriculum to the training of child welfare personnel outlined here is too ambitious; that what I presented is but a diluted professional program, an illegible copy, so to speak, of the

graduate curriculum. As a partial answer, the following question seems pertinent: if undergraduate training is in fact a part of the total span of professional social work education and if, in addition, it must prepare for certain social work jobs, does it not seem logical that it should concern itself with the same problems within the framework of the same philosophy as graduate education? In other words, does it not seem right that "what" is taught in undergraduate settings should not be too different from "what" is taught in graduate schools? The essential difference between the two levels lies rather in how this "what" is taught: how deeply, minutely and precisely the problems are explored, the degree to which the student is expected to use himself as a professional person. It is around the same central core, but in ever wider and deeper circles, that learning takes place and skills are developed.

HIGH SCHOOL CLASSES IN A MATERNITY PROGRAM

Ruth Newton Stevens

Supervisor in Child Care
The Boys and Girls Aid Society
of Oregon, Portland

The author describes how an agency enabled girls to continue their high school education during their stay in the maternity home or in boarding homes for unmarried mothers.

THOSE who work with unmarried mothers are familiar with the difficulties which accompany their re-entry into normal activities after months of relative withdrawal. The clinician has the dual role of helping with practical realities such as medical care and living arrangements, and of providing the emotional support and understanding counseling which will help these mothers to be more mature as they return to the realities of everyday living. The problem is complicated by concern to keep the situation confidential, as well as by the girls' physical changes. Continuing to work, or finding new jobs would undoubtedly be beneficial to many girls. Yet this cannot often be the solution. Employers are not eager to take on pregnant women, married or unmarried. If jobs can be found, the girls' situations are likely to be-

come known, and they may be subjected to many outside pressures in making their decisions and resolving their conflicts.

Girls who are forced to drop out of school because of their pregnancies may hesitate to return after falling behind, although continuance in school would be best. Some whose work has suffered because of their emotional upsets may become too discouraged to try school again.

In an effort to solve at least part of this problem, The Boys and Girls Aid Society of Oregon¹ started high school classes for the unmarried mothers under its care in the fall of 1955. The Society had, for many years, provided service to unmarried mothers, in-

¹ The Boys and Girls Aid Society of Oregon is a licensed, private, statewide child-caring and child-placing agency.

cluding medical care, foster care, casework services and assistance with plans for the babies. During 1955, two hundred and ninety-two mothers from thirteen to forty-four years of age were assisted with one or several of these services. Many of them had already finished high school, and some did not wish to attend or came too late in their pregnancies to make school attendance practicable. However, a significant number did want to continue their schooling.

Obtaining funds to pay teachers' salaries was naturally the first obstacle to be overcome in establishing the school. It was not possible to utilize funds provided for the home teaching of handicapped children, since pregnancy did not come within that classification, as legally defined in this state. The legislature had, however, set a precedent in 1951 by appropriating funds for teachers' salaries for the Salvation Army White Shield Maternity Home in Portland, which then established a school within its institution. A similar appropriation was made for The Boys and Girls Aid Society of Oregon by the 1955 legislature. Equipment for the school was provided by the Society.

Problems in Running School

Problems of operating the school are somewhat different for a maternity home where the girls are in residence, than for an agency all of whose unmarried mothers live in their own homes, the homes of relatives or in supervised foster boarding homes. Adequate space for the school, within the Society's offices, facilitates the maintenance of confidentiality for the students, and also makes it possible for the Society's staff to keep in close touch with both teachers and pupils.

Transportation to class for girls living outside the maternity home offered problems, since the girls come from various directions and distances, but this has not been insurmountable with the cooperation of the foster mothers who occasionally use their own cars and with the girls in using public transportation. The placement of some girls in foster homes near enough to the agency to make walking possible has lessened the prob-

lem to a great extent. Naturally, the agency has felt that a girl's good adjustment in a foster home must have priority over distance to school.

The indefinite length of each girl's stay, the varying backgrounds and educational levels of the students and the difficulty of maintaining continuous work throughout the year in each subject are all factors complicating operation of the school. Overcrowded classes would mean greater complications, of course. Here, in the first semester, fifteen different girls attended, some for almost the whole period, and some for brief ones. Provision has been made so that the girls having their babies near the end of the semester can return to class after hospitalization to complete their work.

Organization of School

A plan was worked out whereby the Society and the White Shield Maternity Home share teachers. Two teachers alternate mornings and afternoons at the two agencies. Thus, it is possible for both agencies to utilize the experience and understanding of the program gained by the same set of teachers.

Subject matter covered includes English, social studies, mathematics, languages, general science, health, commercial subjects, home making, arts and crafts, and music. No laboratory work is available in connection with science courses, because of the high cost in required equipment and since the laboratory course can be taken later in the regular school setting. Health instruction substitutes for physical education and is geared to an understanding of the girls' own bodily changes. Not all of these subjects are given at the same time. The students' abilities and needs determine the curriculum.

Attendance is voluntary, as it is believed that girls who make their own decisions to attend will benefit a great deal more than if attendance is mandatory. So far, this has proved to be true. School credit is given through the Portland high schools, thus making it possible for a girl to re-enroll later in her home community without revealing

her connection with the agency. In some instances where her condition is known by her local school, arrangements have been made for her accreditation through that school. If a girl completes her high school work here, she will graduate from a Portland high school or her local school, will receive a diploma and can even send out announcements, if she wishes.

The Teacher's Role

The teachers' attitudes toward their pupils are of primary importance in the success of this project. They need to be sincerely friendly and interested and yet have a clear recognition that they do not serve as counselors on personal problems. It is essential that they be told something about each girl as she enters, enough that, without violating confidentiality, they can understand her emotional problems and her special educational needs. The previous school transcript of each girl is made available, but these often have to be supplemented by tests to determine the best educational program for the girl.

It is important for the teachers to understand that this is a critical time for many girls. They are away from families and friends and may have many conflicting feelings of guilt and fear which can hamper their ability to concentrate and learn. In this flexible program, with a relatively small number attending at any one time, it is possible to give special attention to special needs, so that some of these problems may be overcome. Girls who have had no special attention at home or at school in the past often thrive in this new situation. Those who have taken school lightly have suddenly settled down to a new interest in school work, especially as their attention is not diverted by extra-curricular activities. Some girls who have supposed their school days were over, are finding that education looks much more desirable when they realize that they can keep up with their classes. Others who have dropped out because of failures, absences or interruptions, are overjoyed to find help available in making up back work.

The teachers here encourage the girls to take more responsibility for their own studying than they have done previously. Due to the limitation of time, each class can meet only once or twice a week. The assignments are therefore longer, research work is encouraged, and since they are not under the constant direction of the teacher, the girls are faced with the necessity for organizing their own work and assuming responsibility for it themselves. More individual help is available, however, than in the normal school situation. Since the classes are small, an informal atmosphere is encouraged, and the girls are free to interrupt and ask for help as they need it. Girls have reported that they have really learned to study in this setting, rather than "coast" as they have done in larger classes. Obviously, bluffing is difficult.

In addition to the primary aim of keeping girls in school, a big secondary value is in the sense of accomplishment and pride in a piece of work well done, or in a skill learned. The conviction that something of value has been accomplished during these months benefits both the girls who are giving up their babies for adoption and those who plan to keep them, helping them to go on more constructively to what lies ahead. This sense of accomplishment has also been reflected in the girls' ability to utilize professional counseling more deeply and consistently, in their better adjustment in the foster homes and in their growing emotional maturity.

In Conclusion

Even our limited experience leads us to feel that this is an important addition to our work with unmarried mothers. For a small, but significant, number of girls, it provides an opportunity for constructive self-evaluation in a protected setting, and it helps materially in bridging the gap back to normal living. Unquestionably, attendance at this time has meant that some girls will continue in school who would otherwise drop out. In addition, it supplements the agency's individual work with girls, providing the staff with more knowledge of the girls, and the girls with more awareness of themselves and greater motivation for working out their problems.

EDITORIAL COMMENTS

Bill S3297 to Improve the Child Welfare Provisions of the Social Security Act

ON FEBRUARY 21 a bill vital to the interests of every child in the United States was introduced in the Senate by Senator Martin of Pennsylvania. This bill, recommended by the President and supported by the administration, would greatly strengthen and improve the child welfare provisions of the Social Security Act.

For the past twenty years the Federal grant-in-aid program to states for child welfare services has been, to a large degree, responsible for the development of good child welfare services in many parts of the rural United States. Much of these funds has been used for the training of child welfare workers and this accounts for the larger proportion of trained workers in public child welfare programs than in any other program of public welfare.

Federal funds are meant to be used to extend and improve child welfare services by demonstrating their effectiveness. These demonstrations have been eminently successful. States and local governments themselves have appropriated many more times the amount of money than the Federal government has spent. These Federal grants have stimulated local responsibility and local initiative, as a result of which the lives of many thousands of children have been protected.

Although Congress has authorized the expenditure of ten million dollars a year for child welfare services programs, unfortunately, only seven million has been appropriated. The present bill calls for an appropriation of ten million dollars for 1957, twelve million for 1958, and fifteen million for each fiscal year thereafter.

Through these increased appropriations, the bill authorizes extending and strengthening child welfare programs in urban areas as well as rural. Heretofore, Federal funds have been restricted to rural areas. Yet all of us in child welfare know the tremendous, growing need for good child welfare services in cities.

The influx of people from rural areas, movements to suburbia that are usually unserved by private or public agencies, inability of local private and public funds to meet the needs of children, demand more adequate financing. The bill will still emphasize services to rural areas, but it takes into account the fact that through twenty years of service we have greatly improved child welfare services in rural areas, and now funds are needed for the cities as well.

The bill recognizes the various patterns of public-private agency relationships that have been worked out in states, by specifically providing that

"The facilities and experience of voluntary agencies shall be utilized in accordance with child care programs and arrangements in the states and local communities, as may be authorized by the state."

This is of great importance to sectarian and other private agencies which want to preserve their responsibility for the care of children. The bill does not seek to supplant that responsibility, but rather to aid and support it.

The Hoover Commission recommended to the President that "where serious need exists for this program" Federal grants for financial support to child welfare services be made available not only in rural areas, but in urban areas as well. Aware of the great unevenness that exists among states in the availability of foster care and the quality of its service, the bill authorizes the use of Federal funds for foster care programs.

The passage of this bill will permit the training of many more child welfare workers. It will permit research and special demonstration projects to be conducted regionally or nationally, and every state in the Union will be benefited.

The bill deserves the support of every citizen interested in good child welfare, for it is well conceived and well drafted. It represents our government's recognition of the growing and pressing needs of children, in the face of inadequacies of service that exist in the United States. It preserves the rights of states to develop programs according to their local customs. It recognizes the importance of requiring state governments to

match Federal funds, so that Federal grants are not regarded as handouts, but rather a basis for mutual participation. It recognizes the basic importance of voluntary agencies in our child care programs.

The administration is to be commended upon the drafting of such a fine bill. But it will be passed only if it is obvious to Congress that the people want it. The citizens who are in the best position to know the need for such a bill are the board and staff members of child welfare agencies throughout the country. Knowing about needs is not suf-

ficient. Congress must decide whether this is sound legislation. Every agency, and every citizen connected with the agencies should communicate with their Congressman, supporting this legislation. The bill is presently being considered in the Senate Finance Committee, chaired by Senator Byrd of Virginia. Hearings will be concluded in early March. It is necessary, therefore, that we communicate with Congress immediately. This is an opportunity for action in behalf of children that may not come again.

JOSEPH H. REID

THE LEGAL PROFESSION'S RESPONSIBILITY IN ADOPTION*

Alex Elson

Attorney
Chicago, Ill.

In the hope of arousing further discussion, the author describes the specific competence of the legally trained person, which is the basis for the difference of his role in adoption and that of the social worker.

IT IS WELL at the outset to restate some of the basic assumptions which give status and acceptance to the professions, including the legal profession. These are:

1. The professional person offers competency in his field, knowledge and skill which are not generally shared.
2. A professional person is not solely concerned with giving skilled services, as such, however important this may be, but is concerned with the total personality of the individual he serves. Put another way, the general welfare of the client in the full center of his social situation cannot be ignored in rendering service to him.

"Clergyman, physician, psychiatrist, nurse, psychologist, lawyer, teacher, social worker, all are involved in the giving-taking relationship. In serving, they do things for, with, and to people. The recipient responds in terms of what he is and of what the services mean to him. His response embodies something of himself and something of the helper. Traditionally, the professional person has been concerned to give what he has to offer in ways which are helpful, in ways which enable the recipient to make good use of the contribution regardless of whether or not he pays for the services. Today there is an increased awareness of the

total personality involved in this relationship and growing concern as to what is being 'done to' the person experiencing a professional service."¹

3. The professional person recognizes responsibility not only to the persons he serves but to society or the community at large.
4. Responsibility of the professional person to the client and the community transcends personal gain or advancement. This concept is explicit in the oath taken by lawyers on their admission to the bar.
5. A professional person recognizes the competence and skill of other professions. Put in other terms he must know and fully accept his own limitations and how best to relate other fields of specialized knowledge to the needs of his client.
6. A professional person is continually interested in and concerned to advance knowledge and understanding in his field of interest. This involves a research approach to problems, a willingness to learn and to teach, a willingness and eagerness, if you will, to work for and accept progress.

These concepts are fundamental to the legal profession among others, but the task of the legal profession can also be sharply

* Presented at CWLA National Conference on Adoption, January 1955, Chicago, Ill.

¹ Charlotte Towle, *The Learner in Education for the Professions*, pp. 3-4, University of Chicago Press, 1954.

defined in relation to the task of the law. Roscoe Pound recently stated:

"The task of the law is to adjust relations and order conduct so as to give the most effect to the whole scheme of expectations of men in civilized society with a minimum of friction and waste."²

This definition has a close relation to adoptions. An adoption is a creation of the legal process. It involves unequivocal and irrevocable adjustment of legal relations, with profound and permanent implications for all concerned.

The lawyer serves as a family counselor and is jealous of his role. His advice is sought on a great variety of relational problems including those of the most intimate character. The privileged character of the relationship encourages full disclosure by the client. The fact that the lawyer will observe his confidence frequently gives the client a release, which is meaningful to him even though the lawyer plays the completely passive role of listener. The client goes to a lawyer with his problems about his wife, his difficulties with his children, especially when they become involved with the law, the making of his will, which for most clients is a solemn undertaking of far-reaching consequences. The lawyer advises on a wide range of subjects. He brings to bear his knowledge and experience of many years. It is not easy for him to confess his inability to advise. It is well to recognize this factor and to deal with it directly and understandingly.

A lawyer who has observed some of the disastrous consequences of misguided adoptions or attempts at adoption knows the hazards involved. But this alone does not bring recognition of the expertness which is available in a recognized child-placing agency. In some cases nothing short of actual observation of the handling of a case by a skilled child welfare worker will convince the lawyer. We must recognize that a substantial part of the legal profession is not generally aware of the nature and character of the social work profession, that it has developed special skills based on a body of knowledge devel-

oped over many years. This is true in relation not only to adoptions but to many other fields of social service. One can say that, with few exceptions, the attorneys who appreciate and recognize the special skills available in a child-placement agency are those who have been educated through the handling of the legal aspects of an adoption processed by an agency. I do not mean to suggest that they have been lectured to by social workers, though some lawyers have been lectured to by some social workers. There has been the process of education by association and observation.

Although this is not the time or place to discuss what can be done about further education of the legal profession, I should like to make but one suggestion, which I last made at the National Conference of Social Work in 1951 in a discussion of legal guardianship. I suggested that the United States Children's Bureau, which had taken the initiative in bringing about a discussion of legal guardianship, arrange to confer with the appropriate committees of the American Association of Law Schools relative to the important contributions of the social work profession.

In fairness to the lawyer, when he attempts to give service in most cases his motivations are in accord with professional standards. But the best motivations are not a substitute for specialized knowledge and training. Lawyers will best serve their profession and their clients if they recognize this fact.

Typical Situations Confronting Lawyer

In pragmatic terms, what are the responsibilities of the lawyer in relation to the several categories of adoption matters that come to him? First, let us consider the fairly common occurrence of a lawyer who is consulted by clients who tell him, usually haltingly and with some embarrassment, that they desire to adopt a child. He will, of course, tell them that an adoption has important legal consequences and what these consequences are. He will tell them what the requirements of the relevant adoption statute are and, in general, something of the process. But most impor-

² *The Lawyer from Antiquity to Modern Times*, pp. 24-25, West Publishing Company, 1953.

tant, he will stress the serious social and relational problems involved and make clear that he is not the person who can best advise them in this area. He will refer them to a recognized child-placement agency. This is the focal point of the interview and should the lawyer fail here, he does a great disservice to his clients, a disservice which may have damaging consequences to them and to others. The fact is that lawyers are not competent and do not have the requisite training and experience to deal with what has become recognized as a special area of social service. This is accepted by a substantial and growing part of the legal profession. But in actual practice there are many lawyers who fail to act accordingly. It is important to try to understand this.

The key problem is focused in the interview at the point that a client tells his attorney that he understands that it is difficult to secure a child. He has heard from friends of the "red tape" and "delays" involved in adoption agencies and that the agencies are "choosy." In some cases the clients have already canvassed the available agencies and have either been discouraged or rejected. They ask the lawyer's assistance in securing a child. Here the lawyer must be understanding, patient and firm. He can play a constructive role in indicating the legal limitations which apply under laws requiring licensing of child-placement agencies and which forbid lawyers or others from engaging in placement. He can explain the reasons for such laws. He can outline the hazards to the client, to the child, and to the community in what has been described as blind adoptions. It is clear that he would violate his professional responsibility if he ventured to secure a child or suggest the means of securing a child outside recognized agencies, if indeed he knows of any sources. Stated in positive terms, his professional duty is to encourage the clients to rely on the advice and guidance available to them in the recognized child-placement agencies.

Second, let us consider the role of the lawyer in an adoption which originates in a child-placement agency. Here the task of the

lawyer is considerably eased. Assuming a properly handled case, the usual anxieties which surround an adoption are resolved, the agency has approved and tested techniques to bring together a sound family unit. The lawyer has the important job of making certain that all of the legal requirements of the adoption statute have been met and that the decree will be unassailable. The smaller agencies which do not have legal consultants must rely heavily on the practitioner for guidance in all legal aspects of the adoption.

Third, we come now to the most difficult situation which confronts the lawyer in the adoption process. The client advises him a child is about to be placed in his home. Usually in this situation, the doctor delivering the child has made the arrangements. The client asks that the lawyer arrange to secure the consent of the mother and to do everything necessary to complete an adoption. This situation bristles with questions. Should the lawyer accept such a case? If he accepts the case should he undertake to confer with the natural mother and secure a consent? To what extent can the client make use of child-placement agencies in the community? Are other resources available? If he secures the consent of the mother how can he protect against revocation? If investigation is required by the adoption statute, what agency will investigate? If the agency which investigates makes an adverse report what should his attitude be? These and many other questions which arise in this situation should be fully discussed in these sessions. Unhappily we must accept the fact that lawyers are often confronted with these questions. Recognized child-placement agencies are without sufficient resources to handle all children of unmarried parents available for adoption. Some doctors will, for some time to come, continue to make private placements. The legal profession cannot shut its doors to adoptive parents in these situations. The individuals involved usually have good motives.

The basic problem is that the method is wrong. How can the lawyer best protect the child, the natural parents, the adoptive parents and the community? The fact is that the

lawyer can only function as a lawyer. This is a hard fact, but it is inescapable. He can provide his experience and knowledge to bring about hopefully an adoption decree which will withstand attack. In all other areas he walks on quicksand. If he is fortunate, he can complete the legal process; he can seldom have the satisfaction of knowing whether the new family which he has legalized will experience a normal range of happiness.

Fourth, there is the problem of the unmarried mother who presents herself to the lawyer for help in planning for her unborn child. The problem here is almost exclusively a social problem, assuming a situation in which the father is unknown or in which there is no desire to establish obligation to support. The duty of the lawyer is clear. The client should be referred to the appropriate social agency in the community so that she can be helped to make the best plan for herself and her unborn child.

Role of Judges

It can be said that apart from seeing that the requirements of the statute are met, the judge in the adoption process is most strategically placed to protect parties involved assuming the existence of a good adoption statute. This is especially true of the independent placement. Those of us who have followed the judicial process know that in very few cases does a judge upset an independent placement. This is not said in criticism of the judges, who are, as a general rule, keenly interested in the child. The fact is that the case comes to the judge too late, usually months after the mother has relinquished the child and a new family unit has been formed. Thus, the case comes before the court without the benefit of an objective and expert appraisal of the situation.

The court may be of great assistance in the more gross cases by establishing a pattern of searching inquiry with the aid of competent caseworkers and by giving weight to the recommendations.

In the process of discussing some of the problems confronting the practicing lawyer,

I have perhaps given a more negative portrayal of the role of the legal profession than is justified. The legal profession not only has recognized the proper role of the lawyer, but has used its disciplinary proceedings to discourage the small minority of lawyers engaged in the black market who have forgotten their professional obligations. More important, the legal profession has been active in securing improvements in adoption and related laws throughout the history of the adoption process.

REGIONAL CONFERENCES

Central Regional Conference

March 15, 16, 17

Netherlands-Plaza Hotel, Cincinnati, Ohio

Chairman: Mr. Duane W. Christy, Executive Vice President

Children's Home of Cincinnati
Cincinnati, Ohio

New England Regional Conference

March 22, 23, 24

Hotel Statler, Boston, Mass.

Chairman: Mr. Harold D. Bryant, Director of Casework

Massachusetts Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children
Boston, Mass.

Southern Regional Conference

April 4, 5, 6

Hotel Biltmore, Atlanta, Ga.

Chairman: Miss Mary Bruce Roberts, Superintendent

Hillside Cottages
Atlanta, Ga.

NEWS FROM THE FIELD

Evolution of Case Record Exhibit Activities

DURING the past fifteen years member agencies, working through regional committees, have derived many benefits from preparing an annual exhibit of case records. These benefits have come from work within the agencies in selecting records for consideration by the regional committee, from stimulation which the committee representative received from association with other members of the committee, and from study of the assembled record exhibit by the various agencies in the country, just to name a few.

As a result of a self-study of the exhibit process, made some five years ago, member agencies decided to develop a set of criteria, against which to evaluate records. To that end, each regional committee spent a year drafting criteria. The National Committee then devoted one brief session to examining these criteria, and a composite of all the suggestions was distributed to each area, for consideration by all the agencies. Although there was complete agreement that these criteria were far from complete, the National Committee decided that perhaps the next step ought to be testing these criteria in selecting a new case record exhibit. It was finally decided to limit the selection of records to those on the intake process.

When the National Committee met to select records for the permanent library last June, the question arose as to how to give the membership at large the benefits of what the entire exhibit revealed as to intake trends and practices. Since the regional case record exhibit committees and the regional conferences were planning to work more closely together, some consideration was given to the advisability of presenting these findings at a session of one of the regional conferences. The Eastern Regional Conference tendered an invitation to hold a panel discussion on this subject. A subcommittee consisting of regional chairmen of the Eastern Regional Conference area was appointed to study this question.

The committee decided on a meeting for the membership from all the agencies in the Eastern Region. This was held in Washington, in October. At this meeting the committee presented some aspects of intake as revealed by the records studied by the National Committee. The entire group participated in discussing these various practices, as demonstrated by the records, thus making it possible for a larger group than the National Committee to become aware of the many variations which exist in intake practice throughout the country. The discussion focused on four aspects:

1. what is intake,
2. intake in relation to community pressure at time of referral,
3. cooperation between several agencies offering different services,
4. effect of agency policy on intake practice.

The Eastern Regional group then voted that the panel which had presented material at this meeting should serve on the program of the Eastern Regional Conference.

Although the National Committee had developed a statement of principles concerning intake for use by regional committees in selecting records, the study of records submitted revealed how much variation in practice exists. As the Washington panel session drew to a close, the group enthusiastically began to consider in what ways the National Committee might share with the membership their discussions in selecting records for the permanent library. The question was raised as to whether the present procedures of record selection are efficient and worthwhile; whether, in order to benefit fully from the case record selection, a study of trends in practice might be a profitable procedure following each selection of records.

Following the panel presentation, the members of the National Committee met to consider how the ideas which emerged during the day's discussions might be developed into a program of activity for the entire membership. The following plan was agreed upon: Selection of a collection of records, to serve for the case record exhibit, will become a biennial project. During the intervening year, each regional committee will be engaged in examining an area of practice through a study of records submitted by the members in that region. A general subject will be selected for the entire country, just as intake was the subject last year. But each region may focus on one aspect of particular local interest.

The exploration will concern itself with trends, problems, and variations in practice as revealed in the records. From among these records, it is hoped some may be submitted the following year for the exhibit. Based on their new understanding, agencies may also select additional records to be submitted for the exhibit.

During the coming year, the regional committees will select an area of practice for examination, under the broad classification of "Establishing and Working Toward Goals in Parent-Child Relationships." While all the committees will be working within this broad subject, each region may elect to work on a single aspect. During the year the

regional committees will formulate statements on trends in practice based on the study of submitted records. The following year the committees will select some records illustrating these trends and problems in the area of parent-child relationships for what will become the Biennial National Case Record Exhibit.

Every region but one was represented, and they were of the opinion that the agencies in their regions would welcome this development in case record activity, because this plan promises to lend new purpose to selection of records and, therefore, should stimulate greater interest in participation. The National Committee believes that, rather than fostering competition between agencies, arising out of making judgments of quality, this plan will foster cooperation toward improving practice, as a result of the greater freedom to examine trends and problems. As new concepts or questions evolve, the regional committees will want to obtain a place on their regional conference programs to present their findings.

The years 1955-57 will be experimental, and we hope that what evolves, region by region, will serve to bring us again to the original purpose of the National Case Record Exhibit—a means for member agencies to learn from and help each other to improve in the practice of child welfare casework.

ELIZABETH A. MEEK
National Chairman
Case Record Exhibit Committee

READERS' FORUM

Protective Casework

DEAR EDITOR:

I want to take this opportunity to compliment CHILD WELFARE on its publication of Bertram Beck's articles "Protective Casework: Revitalized."* This statement is past due, as the profession continues in its fuzzy and confused thinking about protective casework services. Not longer ago than the spring of 1953, at a Central States Regional APWA Conference, where I was privileged to be a panel discussant on this subject, a large number of audience participants continued to use

the term "protective service" in its broadest connotation applied to water fluoridation, etc.

Our Missouri Division of Welfare, Child Welfare Services' experience led us to a specific definition of protective casework services, as one of our many child welfare functions:

"We found that it was confusing to staff members to classify preventive and protective services together since the reason for giving these services and the methods are distinct and different, and it would not assist workers to be of maximum help to children and their parents by classifying them in a general way. We learned that the broad preventive and protective services are not as measurable, as specific and definite."

In an article which I have submitted to *Children* I stated:¹

"Protective service in its broadest connotation includes a variety of environmental and therapeutic services to safeguard the physical, mental, and emotional health of the child, and to insure his social well-being. One of many educational and therapeutic services for the protection of the child is protective casework services. Protective casework services, means direct casework service to parents not requesting help, on behalf of their children, who are not receiving minimum standards of care, as determined by the community in which the family reside."

I have observed considerable confusion in the use of the term "aggressive casework" synonymously with protective casework services. Mr. Beck clarifies the fact that protective casework service is a function, and "aggressive casework" is one of the methods used in carrying out this function. "Aggressive casework" as a method, can be used in other functions such as marital counseling, etc.

It is sometimes quite difficult to interpret protective casework services to the public, particularly in urban communities, when on one hand we seek to identify protective casework services as a function and method, and on the other hand other agencies deny any difference between protective casework services and any other kind of casework services. However, our experience has been that we move farther forward in interpreting and demonstrating protective casework, with resultant community understanding, in counties where there are no other social agencies.

(MISS) LORENA SCHERER

State Child Welfare Supervisor
State Department of Public Health and Welfare
Jefferson City, Mo.

¹ Scherer, Lorena—"Case Work—Protective Help to Children," *Minnesota Welfare*, May 1953.

* November and December 1955 issues.

BOOK NOTES

The Dynamics of Casework and Counseling, by Herbert H. Aptekar. Houghton Mifflin Co., Boston, 1955. 262 pp. \$3.50.

In this small volume the author undertakes to serve a variety of highly complex and important purposes. He attempts to identify similarities and differences between functional and diagnostic casework, to differentiate casework from counseling, to provide teaching material for use both with students in professional schools of social work and with students in psychology, and to meet the needs of professional social workers. In addition he seeks to present his own special view of casework, which he labels "dynamic," as built on a combination of Rankian and Freudian psychology and a combination of diagnostic and functional casework concepts.

The first three chapters contain a thumbnail sketch of the two casework orientations. The author sees the diagnostic orientation as resting on five Freudian concepts: unconscious mind, ambivalence, the past, transference, and resistance. A like number of Rankian concepts are selected as basic to the functional orientation: will, counter-will, the present, separation, and creativity. The two casework orientations are critically evaluated and each is found wanting, essentially on the basis that each admits for consideration and use only part of the multiplicity of factors which have a bearing on giving casework help, and because each tends to apply concepts and principles "mechanically." The author then develops "dynamic practice" as a corrective. It would apply principles differentially, and would make use of both sets of underlying concepts.

The next three chapters are devoted to a presentation of distinctions between casework (the administration of concrete services) and counseling (help with inter-personal problems). Since these are viewed as two separate processes a plea is made for setting up separate agencies for each to avoid confusing clients and workers. These chapters also include further development of a critique of the two orientations and a discussion of diagnosis as "a rigorous, formal, and *comprehensive* procedure" which attempts to deduce the future from the past alone, and which is applied undifferentially in all situations. The

author concludes that one cannot plan differential treatment on the basis of placing the individual in a few general psychological and social categories.

The final chapter illustrates the author's concept of "dynamic practice" which represents "the coming phase of integration" of casework practice. An interview is presented and examined in the light of the two sets of concepts, Rankian and Freudian. It is the author's conclusion that the use of difference between client and caseworker was the principle dynamic of treatment.

Space permits a listing of only a few of the factors which seem to account for the failure of this volume to achieve its varied purposes. The purposes themselves were too broad and varied to undertake within one small volume. Neither Freudian nor Rankian theory can meaningfully be reduced to a few relatively independent concepts. For example, few diagnostically-oriented caseworkers practice without reference to the concept of equilibrium and a system of ideas related to ego functions, a whole body of thought which the author ignores. Nor would there be any substantial agreement with the author's definition and interpretation of the Freudian concepts he does choose. Likewise in his presentation of casework theory for both orientations the author uses a "straw-man" technique which leads him to reject what is admittedly poor casework practice but begs the question he started out to answer. His discussion of diagnostic practice, for instance, omits the crucial notions that diagnosis selects and weighs the past, the present, and aspirations for the future in the light of the help available; that goals arise out of sharing and are mutual rather than imposed; that differential diagnosis and treatment means actually a difference for each client-situation based on a unique constellation of factors, and that this constellation is understood and evaluated both in terms of the general categories involved and in terms of a unique situation.

This book will be stimulating and provocative for the sophisticated professional but is certain to be confusing or misleading for the novice, the beginning student, and those outside the profession.

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